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ABSTRACT

Many univariate statistical methods, such as the analysis of variance, t-test, and regression, assume that the dependent variable data have a univariate normal distribution (Hinkle, Weirsma, and Jurs, 1998). Various other statistical methods assume that the error scores are normally distributed (Thompson, 1992). Violating this assumption can be particularly problematic when examining statistical significance (R. Henson, 1999). Because countless people use the normal distribution in their daily lives to understand data ranging from advertisements to research articles, understanding the normal distribution is extremely important. A normal or nonnormal distribution cannot be determined simply by looking at the curve. To determine a distributions normality, one must analyze the data statistically. (Author/SLD)



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There is More Than One Univariate Normal Distribution:
What is the Normal Distribution, Really?

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Abstract

Many univariate statistical methods, such as the ANOVA, t-test, and regression, assume that the dependent variable data have a univariate normal distribution (cf. Hinkle, Weirsma, & Jurs, 1998, pp. 367-368). Various other statistical methods assume that the error scores are normally distributed (Thompson, 1992). Violating this assumption can be particularly problematic when examining statistical significance (Henson, 1999). Because countless people use the normal distribution in their daily lives to understand data ranging from advertisements to research articles, understanding the normal distribution is extremely important.

Many univariate statistical methods, such as the ANOVA, t-test, and regression, assume that the dependent variable data have a univariate normal distribution (cf. Hinkle, Weirsma, & Jurs, 1998, pp. 367-368). Various other statistical methods assume that the error scores are normally distributed (Thompson, 1992). Violating this assumption can be particularly problematic when examining statistical significance (Henson, 1999). Because countless people use the normal distribution in their daily lives to understand data ranging from advertisements to research articles, understanding the normal distribution is extremely important.

many useful mathematical The normal curve has properties (Bump, 1991). One example includes the use of the normal curve to determine the percentage of people scoring within selected SD units from the mean (Bump, In the normal distribution, 68% of the scores fall between the mean and plus or minus one SD, 95% fall within plus or minus two SD from the mean, and 99% fall within plus or minus three SD from the mean. For these various reasons, Wilcox (1996, p.63) stated that the normal distribution is "the most important distribution in all of statistics."



People often believe the fallacy that the normal curve can only be the classical "bell" shaped curve seen in This most commonly pictured normal curve is actually the standard normal curve (i.e. z scores that are normally distributed) (Hinkle et al., 1998). In reality, the normal curve has infinitely many possible curve shapes and sizes. The misconception that the standard normal curve is the single possible normal curve undermines the normal curve's true properties. The data used in a normal curve must be intervally scaled. Most intervally scale variables yield normal or quasi-normal distributions when data are collected from large samples, and the normal Z distribution is also used as a test statistic in some statistical significance testing (Bump, 1991). Using the "look" of a distribution to determine normality is inadequate.

The necessary properties of the normal distribution curve include:

- The curve is symmetrical. The mean, median, and mode coincide.
- 2. Maximum height is at the mean/median/mode.
- 3. The normal distribution is continous. There is an Y value for every X value.



4. The curve is asymptotic. It approaches the X-axis, but it does not meet the X-axis and extends from negative infinity to positive infinity.

Needless to say, these properties of the normal curve do not limit the shape of the curve solely to the classic "bell" shape that is most often identified as the "normal curve." For every possible mean and standard deviation, there is a unique normal distribution that makes up a family of distributions (Hinkle et al., 1998, p. 91).

That is, a normal distribution with a near-zero SD will look tall and narrow. A normal distribution with a large SD will look flat and wide. But both such distributions are perfectly normal distributions. And because there are infinitely many values for SD (and the mean as well), there are infinitely many normal distributions.

In order to have a normal distribution, the distribution's measures of central tendency (average scores) must lie near the center of the distribution (Hinkle et al., 1998, p. 61). Therefore, the mean, median, and mode are identical. The normal curve can take infinitely many forms, each having skewness and kurtosis coefficients of zero (Bump, 1991; Burdenski, 2000; Henson,

1999), but differing in appearance (e.g., apparent width and apparent height).

Skewness and kurtosis have an effect on the ability of a distribution to be defined as normal or not. univariate cases, normality is assessed by the value of a kurtosis coefficient (Henson, 1999). Kurtosis indicates shape of a distribution relative to the normal distribution, by comparing the relative height to width of a distribution curve (Henson, 1999). Kurtosis is the forth moment about the mean, it accompanied with three other moments about the mean help identify a distribution as The first moment is the mean itself, the second is the standard deviation, and the third is the coefficient of The kurtosis coefficient is computed by the skewness. formula:

```
K_{X} = \{ [(n(n+1)) / ((n-1)(n-2)(n-3))] [\Sigma(((X_{i} - \bar{X}) / SD_{x})^{4})] \} - [(3 ((n-1)^{2})) / ((n-2)(n-3))] \text{ or } \{ [(n (n+1)) / ((n-1)(n-2)(n-3))] (\Sigma (Z_{i}^{4})) \} - [(3 ((n-1)^{2})) / ((n-2)(n-3))] \}
```

Researchers typically apply the additive constant, -3 to the result so that the result will be zero for a distribution that is univariate normal (Henson, 1999). Therefore, the kurtosis coefficient of zero indicates that the shape directly corresponds to the shape of the univariate normal distribution. Henson (1999) further



explained that there must be an appropriate proportion of distribution height to width for normality to exist.

Skewness is the degree of symmetry or non-symmetry in a distribution. The formula:

$$S_x = [n / ((n-1)(n-2))] [\Sigma(((X_i - \bar{X}) / SD_x)^3)] \text{ or } [n / ((n-1)(n-2))] (\Sigma (Z_i^3))$$

is used to assess skewness. In a skewed distribution, the majority of the scores are located at one end of the measurement with progressively fewer towards the other end (Hinkle et al., 1998, p. 621). Symmetry is necessary in order to have a normal distribution, however a symmetrical be a normal distribution. distribution may not example, a bimodal distribution is often symmetrical but does not represent a normal distribution. Symmetrical coefficient distributions have a skewness therefore positive values indicate positively skewed or skewed to the right or negatively skewed or skewed to the left (Henson, 1999; Hinkle et al., 1998, p. 42).

Heuristic Examples

Table 1 presents a heuristic data set of 100 cases of data for the variable "x". These data are very close to normally distributed, as portrayed in the descriptive statistics in Table 2.



INSERT TABLES 1 AND 2 ABOUT HERE

Using the SPSS syntax located in the Appendix, 4 variables were computed (i.e., "mean0 1", "mean0 2", "mean0 3", and "mean0 4"), all with equal means. As seen in Table 2, the standard deviations of each set of variables differ.

Each set of variables exemplifies the normal curve even though they differ in "spreadoutness". The normality of these curves is confirmed by the coefficients of skewness and kurtosis in Table 2. Both coefficients equal approximately zero. Also, in Figures 1 through 4 the normality of the data set is graphically compared to the normal curve. The data distributions of the normal curve are placed over the actual data distributions.

INSERT FIGURES 1 THROUGH 4 ABOUT HERE

Using the SPSS syntax located in the Appendix, 3 variables were computed (i.e. "mean 1", "mean 2", and "mean 3"). As seen in Table 2 neither the means nor the standard deviations were equal.

Although, these 3 distributions differ in their "spreadoutness", the variables are approximately normal.



This can be confirmed in Table 2, as the skewness and kurtosis coefficients equal nearly zero. It can also be confirmed in Figures 5 through 7 where the graphs of the data is seen with the normal curve imposed over the actual data distributions.

INSERT FIGURES 5 THROUGH 7 ABOUT HERE

As mentioned previously, "eyeballing" a curve insufficient in determining whether or not a distribution Therefore, nongraphical tests may also be is normal. utilized to determine the normality of a distribution. These nongraphical tests include the chi-square goodness of fit, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, the Shaprio-Wilk test, as well as the use of skewness and kurtosis coefficients (Stevens, 2002, p. 264). According to Stevens (2002), investigators have studied the usefulness of these tests and determined that the combination of skewness and kurtosis coefficients the Shaprio-Wilk test were the most powerful determining normality. They also found that extreme nonnormality could be detected with sample sizes less than 20 by using sensitive procedures (like the two just mentioned). This proves important, because for practical problems, the group sizes are small (Stevens, 2002, p. 264).



seen, graphical techniques can As be helpful assessing univariate normality. Several of the graphical methods for testing normality exist. One particular test is the normal probability plot or Q-Q Plot (quantileversus-quantile) in which the observations are ordered in increasing degree of magnitude and then plotted against expected normal distribution values (Burdenski, 2000). closer the line is to a straight line, the more correlated the observed score is with the expected score and the more normal the distribution (Burdenski, 2000). Three other graphical tests include the box-and whisker- plot, stemand-leaf plot, and a histogram of the dependent variables. Burdenski (2000) stated that these tests allow a quick and simple means of evaluating the shape of the univariate distribution for each dependent variable. The graphical and nongraphical testing techniques allow the researcher to fully determine the normality of a univariate distribution. Because the fallacy of using only the look of a curve to determine its normality has been proven to be inadequate, these other assessment techniques prove to be helpful.

Summary

The univariate normal distribution has infinitely many shapes. Through the graphs, several examples have been given showing one way data can be manipulated and the



normal distributions still exist. Each graph portrays a slightly different look of the normal distribution, while each data set maintained skewness and kurtosis values that were exactly the same.

A normal or nonnormal distribution cannot be determined by simply looking at the curve. To determine a distribution's normality, one must analyze the data statistically. Because many people confuse the typical "bell" shape curve as the one and only normal distribution, it is important to understand that bells can come in many different shapes as can the normal curve.



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Table 1 Heuristic Data (n=100) From Thompson (2002)

ID	x
1	24.00
2	28.00
3 4	30.00 32.00
3 4 5 6	33.00 34.00
6 7	34.00 35.00
8	36.00
9	36.00
10 11	37.00 37.00
12	38.00
13 14	38.00 39.00
15	39.00
16	40.00
17 18	40.00 41.00
19 20	41.00
20 21	41.00 42.00
22	42.00
23	42.00
24 25	43.00 43.00
26	43.00
27 28	44.00 44.00
29	44.00
30 31	45.00 45.00
32	45.00
33	46.00
34 35	46.00 46.00
35 36	46.00
37 38	47.00 47.00
39	47.00
40 41	47.00 48.00
42	48.00
43 44	48.00 48.00
45	49.00
46	49.00
47 48	49.00 49.00
49	50.00
50 51	50.00 50.00
52	50.00



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        64.00
 93
        64.00
 94
        65.00
        66.00
 95
 96
        67.00
 97
        68.00
       70.00
 98
 99
       72.00
100
       76.00
```

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Table 2 Descriptive Statistics

		Statist	ics	
			Coef. Of	Coef. of
<u>Variable</u>	Mean	SD	Skewnes	Kurtosis
x	50.00	10.05	.000	090
mean0 1	0.00	10.05	.000	090
mean0_2	0.00	5.02	.000	090
mean0_3	0.00	15.07	.000	090
mean0_4	0.00	40.20	.000	090
$mean_{1}$	25.00	5.02	.000	090
mean_2	75.00	15.07	.000	090
mean_3	200.00	40.20	.000	090

 $a'' mean0_1'' = "x" - 50.$ b= "mean0_1" * .5



c= "mean0_1" * 1.5

d = ``mean0 1'' * 4.

e = "x" * .5

f= "x" * 1.5

q = "x" * 4.

Table 3
Scores n=100 for Three Variances
Each with Means = .000

ID	MEANO_1	MEANO_2	MEANO_3	MEANO_4
1	-26.00000	-13.00000	-39.00000	-104.0000
2	-22.00000	-11.00000	-33.00000	-88.00000
3	-20.00000	-10.00000	-30.00000	-80.00000
4	-18.00000	-9.000000	-27.00000	-72.00000
5	-17.00000	-8.500000	-25.50000	-68.00000
6	-16.00000	-8.000000	-24.00000	-64.00000
7	-15.00000	-7.500000	-22.50000	-60.00000
8	-14.00000	-7.000000	-21.00000	-56.00000
9	-14.00000	-7.000000	-21.00000	-56.00000
10	-13.00000	-6.500000	-19.50000 -19.50000	-52.00000 -52.00000
11 12	-13.00000 -12.00000	-6.500000 -6.000000	-18.00000	-52.00000 -48.00000
13	-12.00000 -12.00000	-6.000000	-18.00000	-48.00000
14	-11.00000	-5.500000	-16.50000	-44.00000
15	-11.00000	-5.500000	-16.50000	-44.00000
16	-10.00000	-5.000000	-15.00000	-40.00000
17	-10.00000	-5.000000	-15.00000	-40.00000
18	-9.000000	-4.500000	-13.50000	-36.00000
19	-9.000000	-4.500000	-13.50000	-36.00000
20	-9.000000	-4.500000	-13.50000	-36.00000
21	-8.000000	-4.000000	-12.00000	-32.00000
22	-8.000000	-4.000000	-12.00000	-32.00000
23	-8.000000	-4.000000	-12.00000	-32.00000
24	-7.000000	-3.500000	-10.50000	-28.00000
25	-7.000000	-3.500000	-10.50000	-28.00000
26 27	-7.000000 -6.000000	-3.500000	-10.50000 -9.000000	-28.00000 -24.00000
28	-6.000000	-3.000000 -3.000000	-9.000000	-24.00000
29	-6.000000	-3.000000	-9.000000	-24.00000
30	-5.000000	-2.500000	-7.500000	-20.00000
31	-5.000000	-2.500000	-7.500000	-20.00000
32	-5.000000	-2.500000	-7.500000	-20.00000
33	-4.000000	-2.000000	-6.000000	-16.00000
34	-4.000000	-2.000000	-6.000000	-16.00000
35	-4.000000	-2.000000	-6.000000	-16.00000
36	-4.000000	-2.000000	-6.000000	-16.00000
37	-3.000000	-1.500000	-4.500000	-12.00000
38	-3.000000	-1.500000	-4.500000	-12.00000
39	-3.000000	-1.500000	-4.500000	-12.00000
40	-3.000000	-1.500000	-4.500000 -3.000000	-12.00000
41 42	-2.000000 -2.000000	-1.000000 -1.000000	-3.000000	-8.000000 -8.000000
43	-2.000000	-1.000000	-3.000000	-8.000000
44	-2.000000	-1.000000	-3.000000	-8.000000
45	-1.000000	5000000	-1.500000	-4.000000
46	-1.000000	5000000	-1.500000	-4.000000
47	-1.000000	5000000	-1.500000	-4.000000
48	-1.000000	5000000	-1.500000	-4.000000
49	.0000000	.0000000	.0000000	.0000000
50	.0000000	.0000000	.0000000	.0000000



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 79 8.0000000 4.0000000 12.000000 32.000000
 80 8.0000000 4.0000000 12.000000 32.000000
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 83 9.0000000 4.5000000 13.500000 36.000000
 84 10.000000 5.0000000 15.000000 40.000000
 85 10.000000 5.0000000 15.000000 40.000000
 86 11.000000 5.5000000 16.500000 44.000000
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 95 16.000000 8.0000000 24.000000 64.000000
 96 17.000000 8.5000000 25.500000 68.000000
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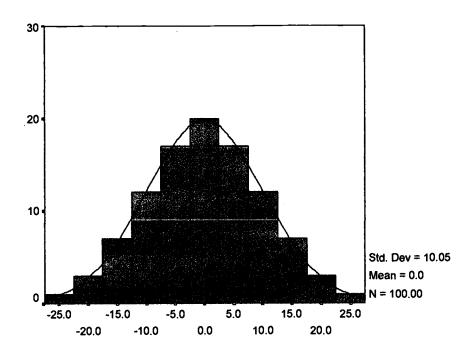
Table 4
Scores (n = 100) for Three Variances
Each with Means ≠ .000

ID	MEAN_1	MEAN_2	MEAN_3
1 2	12.000000	36.000000 42.000000	96.000000 112.00000
3	14.000000	45.000000	120.00000
. 4	16.000000	48.000000	128.00000
5	16.500000	49.500000	132.00000
6	17.000000	51.000000	136.00000
7	17.500000	52.500000	140.00000
8	18.000000	54.000000	144.00000
9	18.000000	54.000000	144.00000
10	18.500000	55.500000	148.00000
11	18.500000	55.500000	148.00000
12	19.000000	57.000000	152.00000
13	19.000000	57.000000	152.00000
14	19.500000	58.500000	156.00000
15	19.500000	58.500000	156.00000
16 17	20.000000 20.000000	60.000000	160.00000
18	20.500000	61.500000	164.00000
19	20.500000	61.500000	164.00000
20	20.500000	61.500000	164.00000
21	21.000000	63.000000	168.00000
22	21.000000	63.000000	168.00000
23	21.000000	63.000000	168.00000
24	21.500000	64.500000	172.00000
25	21.500000	64.500000	172.00000
26 27	21.500000 22.000000	64.500000 66.000000	172.00000 176.00000
28	22.000000	66.000000	176.00000
29	22.000000	66.000000	176.00000
30	22.500000	67.500000	180.00000
31	22.500000	67.500000	180.00000
32	22.500000	67.500000	180.00000
33	23.000000	69.000000	184.00000
34	23.000000	69.000000	184.00000
35	23.000000	69.000000	184.00000
36 37	23.000000 23.500000	69.000000 70.500000	184.00000 188.00000
38	23.500000	70.500000	188.00000
39	23.500000	70.500000	188.00000
40	23.500000	70.500000	188.00000
41	24.000000	72.000000	192.00000
42	24.000000	72.000000	192.00000
43	24.000000	72.000000	192.00000
44	24.000000	72.000000	192.00000
45	24.500000	73.500000	196.00000
46	24.500000	73.500000	196.00000
47 48	24.500000 24.500000	73.500000 73.500000	196.00000 196.00000
49	25.000000	75.000000	200.00000
50	25.000000	75.000000	200.00000



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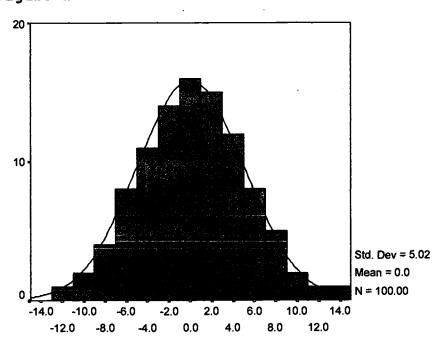




MEAN0_1

Figure 1

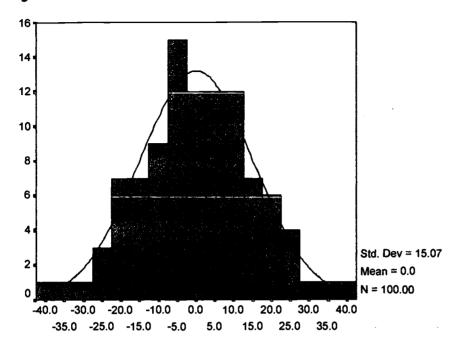
Figure 2



MEAN0_2



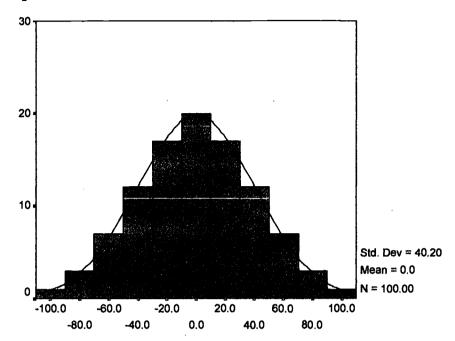
Figure 3



MEAN0_3

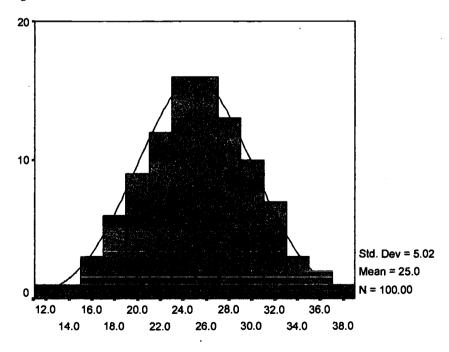


Figure 4



MEAN0_4

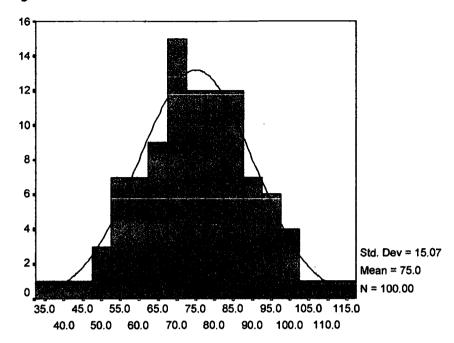
Figure 5



MEAN_1

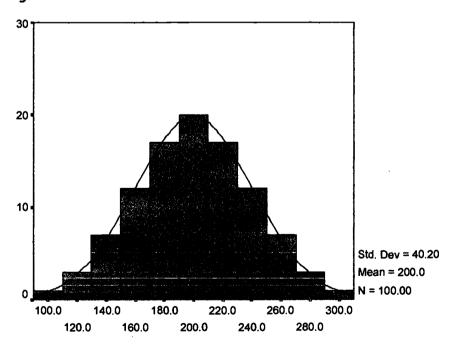


Figure 6



MEAN_2

Figure 7



MEAN_3



```
SET BLANKS=SYSMIS UNDEFINED=WARN printback=listing .
TITLE 'Bruce Thompson's normal data **********.
DATA LIST
FILE= 'a:\normal2.txt' FIXED RECORDS=1 TABLE/1 id 1-3 x 4-
List variables=all/cases=999 .
subtitle '1 show several normal with same Mean ***' .
execute .
compute mean 01 = x - 50..
compute mean 0 = mean 0 1 * .5.
compute mean 3 = \text{mean} 0 \ 1 \ * \ 1.5.
compute mean 04 = mean 01 * 4.
list variables=id mean0 1 to mean0 4/cases=999 .
descriptives variables=x mean0 1 to mean0 4/statistics=all
subtitle '2 show several normal with *dif* Mean ***'
execute.
compute mean 1 = x * .5.
compute mean 2 = x * 1.5.
compute mean 3 = x * 4..
list variables=id mean 1 to mean 3/cases=999 .
descriptives variables=x mean 1 to mean 3/statistics=all .
GRAPH
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL) =mean0 1 .
GRAPH
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=mean0 2 .
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=mean0 3 .
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=mean0 4 .
GRAPH
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=mean 1 .
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=mean 2 .
GRAPH
  /HISTOGRAM(NORMAL)=mean 3 .
```





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